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In this issue

STATE DEPARTMENT AID TO CULTURAL EXCHANGE WITH CHINA

By Willys R. Peck ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆

UNITED STATES POLICY RELATING TO OPIUM

By George A. Morlock ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆ ☆



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BULLETIN

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Contents

	Page
AMERICAN REPUBLICS	
Visitors to the United States:	
Guatemalan Pediatrician	53
Mexican Hematologist	53
Director of Uruguayan Hospital	54
CANADA	
Changes in Travel Regulations Between the United States and Canada	52
EUROPE	
Visit of General Charles de Gaulle to United States . . .	47
Sweden To Represent Finnish Interests in United States . .	50
FAR EAST	
Seventh Anniversary of the Japanese Attack on China:	
Telegram From President Roosevelt to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek	35
Statement by the Secretary of State	35
GENERAL	
Working Together: Address by the Under Secretary of State	44
Limiting the Production of Opium: Statement by the Secretary of State.	47
United States Policy Relating to Opium: By George A. Morlock	48
INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES, COMMISSIONS, ETC.	
Mexican - United States Agricultural Commission.	53
TREATY INFORMATION	
Military-Service Agreement, Brazil and Great Britain. . .	55
Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences.	55
THE DEPARTMENT	
State Department Aid to Cultural Exchange With China:	
By Willys R. Peck	36
Appointment of Officers	54
THE FOREIGN SERVICE	
Consular Offices	51
PUBLICATIONS	55
LEGISLATION	55

Page
53
53
54

Seventh Anniversary of the Japanese Attack on China

TELEGRAM FROM PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT TO GENERALISSIMO CHIANG KAI-SHEK

[Released to the press July 6]

52 The President of the United States has sent the
53 following telegram to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-
54 shek on the occasion of the seventh anniversary of
47 the attack on China by Japan:

50 "On this seventh anniversary of your country's
resistance against the brutal and unprovoked at-
35 tack of the Japanese aggressor, the entire Ameri-
35 can people do honor to the spirit of the Chinese
44 nation. Through seven long years the people of
47 China, under your steadfast leadership, have dedi-
48 cated themselves to the cause of freedom with
53 heroism and determination undaunted by increas-
55 ing trials and sacrifices. China's example has
36 been an inspiration to all of the United Nations.

"The rising tide of victories in Europe and the
Far East is hastening the day when Chinese and
Allied armies will sweep the invader from your
country and China will assume its rightful role
in the common task of building peace and pros-
perity for all.

"We rejoice in the deep and understanding
friendship between our two peoples, long tested
by the years and now proven and cemented on
the field of battle. That friendship and the close
fellowship of all the United Nations must be the
basis of the fundamental goodwill and mutual
trust that can alone assure the future welfare of
mankind.

FRANKLIN D ROOSEVELT"

STATEMENT BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE

[Released to the press July 6]

55 Seven years ago today the Chinese nation made
55 its historic stand against the savage onslaught of
the Japanese tyrant. By that act and by the
heroic tenacity with which they have since car-
ried on in the face of incredible difficulties and
36 privations the Chinese have won the respect and
54 admiration of all freedom-loving peoples.

51 On this day especially the minds and hearts of
55 Americans are with the brave people and defend-
55 ers of China in their dark hour of trial. To them
we renew the solemn pledge of our unflinching sup-

port and of our faith in the indomitable spirit
which will carry them through their terrible
ordeal.

The recent victories of the United Nations in
both the European and Asiatic theaters give
heartening assurance that the great task in which
China has struggled so long and valiantly will soon
enter its final phase. We are proud that, in the
successful conclusion of the war and in the build-
ing of a democratic peace, we shall have by our
side our great and good friend, the Chinese
nation.

State Department Aid to Cultural Exchange With China

By WILLYS R. PECK¹

"Consulation having been had with the Chief of Staff of the Army, I find that:

"(1) The defense of China is vital to the defense of the United States;"

Opening with these words, the President in a letter of May 6, 1941 to the Secretary of War authorized the Secretary to transfer to China certain defense articles set forth in an annexed schedule. This action was taken in accordance with the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941.

During those summer months of 1941, while material aid was being sent to China over the Burma Road, the Department of State developed aid to China in the fields of education, technical skills, and publications. One of the dislocations caused by four years of invasion had been the disappearance of ordinary means of travel and mail communications within China and between China and the rest of the world. On July 26, 1941 this Government proclaimed a "freezing order" against Japanese funds. At the request of the Chinese Government this order was extended to include Chinese funds as well. It was not the intention, however, of either the Chinese or the American Government that there should be any freezing of the intellectual exchanges between Americans and Chinese. The Department devised ways to keep these exchanges active.

By November the basic operations had been planned and matters had progressed so far that the Secretary of State, with the President's approval, asked the Director of the Bureau of the Budget for an allotment of funds. He pointed out that China had been fighting for over four years and that the emergency definitely called for the beginning of a cultural-relations program with that country. An initial allotment to start the project was made by the President in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury dated January 14, 1942, by which time the United States and China had become associated in the war. It may be admitted frankly that this

idea, originating months before we ourselves were in the fight, was prompted by American sympathy for the Chinese in their struggle against Japan. The Chinese people had endured bitter sufferings at the hands of the Japanese. They were not in a position to take full part in a reciprocal program of cultural relations like the programs operating in the Western Hemisphere. This might well come later. At this time, a helping hand from one ally to another and the restoration, as far as possible, of pre-hostility intellectual relations with our country was needed. The Chinese Ambassador at Washington heartily approved the effort. As early as June 1941 the American Ambassador at Chungking, who has warmly supported the plan from the beginning, reported that he had discussed with prominent Chinese officials a proposal that the American Government should offer to send American technical specialists to China. He had the impression that such an offer would be welcomed.

The object of this cultural-relations program with China is to assist China in those cultural activities that have been impeded by the Japanese hostilities.

When we entered the war, for example, there were about 1,800 Chinese students in the United States. They represented a large investment of money, time, and talent. If the United States had 1,800 young men and women with sufficient knowledge of the Chinese language to take up college education in Chinese universities, it would regard them as an extraordinary asset. In China's case these students were counted upon to help in the reconstruction of China after the war. Many of them had been plunged into financial difficulties by exchange restrictions or by the wiping out of their remittances from China. Necessary steps had to be taken to provide them with subsistence and the means of completing their education. The Chinese Government set up an organization to take care of some of these students, and the State Department began at once to give scholarships to others. Up to the present time the Department has given monthly grants to approximately 400 different persons. About 160 are on the rolls at one time.

¹The author of this article is a Foreign Service officer who was for many years Counselor of the American Embassy in China and was later American Minister to Thailand. As Special Assistant in the Office of Public Information he has been assigned duties in the cultural exchange with China.

Here are comments on a few of the students who have been given scholarships. A professor at the University of Chicago says of Mr. R. C. S.:

"He is a hard-working student, has an excellent background and considerable experience in scientific and quantitative sociology. He has made a very good impression at the University of Chicago."

A professor at Pomona College, California, says of Mr. B. T.:

"He is one of the most brilliant students that I have had in the last several years. His work is thorough, promptly done, and accurate. He has an unusual amount of initiative."

A faculty member at the State University of Iowa writes of Mrs. F.:

"She has been doing her thesis research for the Master of Science degree under my direction, and has, in addition, been serving as senior assistant in quantitative analysis. In this work she has been in sole charge of laboratory sections, and has handled the students with efficiency, tact, decision and self-reliance. Her scholastic work has been excellent, and if continued at the present level, should rank with that of our very best graduate students."

Comments such as these could be quoted at length. For the sake of China's development and for the sake of our relations with that country it was preferable that these students complete their education, rather than that they leave college and support themselves by work. Many wished to return to China, but transportation and financial difficulties prevented all but a very few from making the journey.

Here is a letter from a student who received a scholarship to study at Iowa State University. It depicts well the general reaction of these young people:

"I was awarded a State Department scholarship for the period of July 1942 to April 1943. This award enabled me to complete my Ph.D. degree in Civil Engineering in the State University of Iowa and to join two honorary fraternities in science and engineering, which, before receiving the grant, I was unable to do because of my financial condition. Now I have completed my education and I am going to work with the Committee on Wartime Planning for Chinese Students in the

United States. I shall always be grateful for having received this grant and shall try to make the best use of this award so that I shall not be the only one benefited by it, but my country and the people of China as well."

The Department has given special scholarships to between thirty and forty students, and it has provided opportunities for their practical training in Government agencies or in private institutions. The Soil Conservation Service of the Department of Agriculture has trained a number of students in the making of maps from aerial surveys; the Bureau of Reclamation of the Interior Department and the Tennessee Valley Authority have given training in hydraulic engineering; the Herman Briggs Memorial Hospital at Ithaca, New York, received a Chinese surgeon for training in thoracic surgery. These are merely examples taken from a long list.

Another special development in the training has been the appointment of four Chinese men and one woman to teaching positions in the school systems of Springfield, Massachusetts; Lincoln, Nebraska; Bronxville, New York; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and the region around San Francisco Bay, California. These appointees, known as "consultants" or "visiting teachers", are graduate students in education. They have been getting a thorough insight into American educational methods and administration of the primary and secondary levels; they have also been giving instruction to American pupils in the customs and culture of China and have delivered addresses on these subjects before social organizations. Reports from these visiting teachers testify that school authorities and all other members of the communities where they were living have treated them with the greatest cordiality. As acquaintance has deepened, this cordiality has developed into mutual enthusiasm. The following excerpt from a letter by a school official is a typical reaction to the activities of the Chinese visiting teachers:

"Mr. H. has addressed our elementary school faculty and has been invited into various classrooms throughout the schools to talk with students and to assist any of our teaching staff of some seventy teachers. The results of these experiences convince me that this is the true educational method of developing better understanding

between our United States and the remainder of the world. Would that much more of it could be done by schools throughout our nation."

In what way has it been possible for the State Department to collaborate culturally with China behind the barrier of Japanese encirclement?

As we think of transportation capacities in the United States the volume of freight carried by the Burma Road was little more than a trickle, yet when the Japanese closed the road in May 1942 China's resistance to Japan entered its most serious phase. Except for what could be flown in by plane China was reduced to what it could itself produce in the way of military equipment and consumer goods. In the vast task of creating a new economic order in west China the Chinese Government and the Chinese people must depend on their own resources and resourcefulness. The China National Aviation Corporation, an American-Chinese enterprise, has done a magnificent job throughout the Japanese hostilities; so has the Air Transport Command since we entered the war. Both of them fly scheduled flights "over the hump" from Assam into China. Their planes are needed, however, for passengers and for strictly military purposes.

When the State Department took steps to assist the Chinese to complete the training of their own future doctors, engineers, scientists, and technicians here in the United States, it simultaneously asked the Chinese Government whether it would like to have the services of a number of American specialists and, if so, to describe what fields should be covered. The Chinese Government canvassed its different agencies and found that they wanted about thirty American specialists, as follows:

Ministry of Agriculture:

- Potato and corn breeder
- Insecticide and fungicide specialist
- Veterinarian to produce serum and vaccine
- Animal breeder
- Two soil conservationists
- Animal husbandman

National Health Administration:

- Two pharmaceutical chemists to produce sulfa drugs
- Sanitary engineer
- Pharmaceutical engineer
- Specialist in biological products
- Chemical engineer

Ministry of Education:

- Professors of chemical, mechanical, aeronautical, and electrical engineering

Ministry of Economic Affairs:

- Chemical engineer to produce nitric compounds
- Mechanical engineer to improve machine-shop practice
- Petroleum expert
- Metallurgical engineer

Ministry of Communications:

- Engineer to assist with long-distance telephones
- Radio engineer

Ministry of Finance:

- Specialists in paper production and engraving

Commission on Hydraulic Affairs:

- Hydraulic engineer

Ministry of Information:

- Journalism: Experts in radio, rewrite, features, and photography

Industrial Cooperatives:

- Three specialists in management.

This list is significant in the way that it describes the range of the Government's activities. The entire Chinese Government had been obliged four years before to migrate 1,500 miles to the western side of the country and set itself up in a new area. This region, although comparatively rich in mineral and agricultural potentialities, was undeveloped in the industrial sense of the term. In the course of reconstruction, political and military centers and factories had been constantly bombed. Practically no materials could be obtained from outside the country. Just as the scope of the list is an index to the Government's ambitions, so the challenge to American technicians is one to appeal to the pioneering spirit of Americans.

The State Department began a nation-wide search for qualified specialists, mainly through other Government agencies. The positions offered to American technicians were no richly paid sinecures. Salaries offered were intended merely to insure against financial loss. Transportation expenses were to be met by the Department, and a small allowance was given each man to meet extra expenses arising from service abroad. The Chinese paid the travel expenses in China. They also, in most cases, supplied food and lodging. Even then the daily allowance was more than swallowed up by the constantly rising prices of other necessities. If travel outward was by sea, there was a six weeks' voyage to India, by no means devoid of danger. Living and traveling in China are at their best uncomfortable and a trial to the unaccustomed, whether Chinese or Americans. In reality the positions offered to these successful technicians were distinctly wartime duties.

Up to the present time, after searching investigation, 22 men who volunteered for these posts have been appointed. Eleven have come back to the United States. Two of them, having felt that worthwhile programs had not been set up, returned before their contracts expired. One is on his way to China. One died in China. Nine are now in China. From two to four additional specialists are in process of being selected, the number depending on the desires of the Chinese authorities.

Here are some of the things these Americans have been able to accomplish for China:

A specialist lent by the Soil Conservation Service of the Department of Agriculture conducted an expedition in northwest China, covering 6,000 miles in 7 months, as far as the borderlands of Tibet and the desert of Gobi. Eight Chinese technicians accompanied him, and the Chinese Government met the high costs of the entire expedition, which made exhaustive investigations and collected data relating to soil conservation and utilization. Before his return to the United States this specialist submitted to the Chinese Government a 50-page preliminary report that ended with five recommendations for action. The Chinese Minister of Agriculture and Forestry said to him, in a letter, after his return: "Your last year's service in China has laid the foundation of China's water and soil conservation work."

Another official lent by the Soil Conservation Service arrived in China in January 1944 and is working on investigations and recommendations in the field of soil-erosion prevention. He is, incidentally, greatly interested in the dehydration of foods. At a welcoming dinner given by the Minister of Agriculture, he opened a can of dehydrated sweet potatoes. The tasting of this American product resulted speedily in official approval for an extensive project of food dehydration. Another Department of Agriculture specialist is engaged in finding what varieties of white potatoes are most suitable for different areas in northwest China. The Chinese Government attaches the greatest importance to his work, believing that the successful cultivation of potatoes will help in preventing famines and in colonizing vast areas now uninhabited or sparsely inhabited. In December 1943, after one year's operations, this specialist submitted to the Chinese Government a long report of his investigations, which included experiments with 52 varieties of potatoes brought

from the United States. He expects, after his return to the United States, to prepare a textbook for the use of Chinese agricultural technicians and colleges.

An official of the Bureau of Animal Industry of our Department of Agriculture spent nine months traveling in remote areas studying livestock production and formulating recommendations for the Ministries of War, Agriculture, and Communications on animal breeding and transportation. He visited the far northwestern province of Chinghai and made a report to the governor on livestock production there and the possibilities of its improvement. At the request of the Government of India he traveled in India for two months studying similar problems and submitting his recommendations.

The head of the department of animal husbandry of a western state college covered long distances in west China, including the frontier provinces of Sikang and Ninghsia, reporting on range problems and animal production. After his return he collected and sent to China through the State Department an assortment of grass seeds, for experimental planting, obtained from all over the United States. This collection is believed to be the largest of this sort ever made.

The two specialists last listed are preparing for publication at the expense of the State Department a book of information concerning Chinese livestock types and conditions, based upon their researches, for distribution in China. An associate veterinary pathologist from another state college is now in China setting up methods for the prevention of animal diseases.

An official, lent by the Imperial Valley Irrigation and Drainage Project in California, has made inspections over wide areas in west China and has advised the Chinese Government on irrigation and power and similar enterprises. Officials of Chinese national engineering agencies and provincial officials accompanied him. Their presence made it possible to analyze, on the spot, the problems involved in each project.

The head of a college mechanical engineering department has spent a year in China visiting most of the Chinese universities that give courses in engineering. He has also inspected factories and engineering projects and has given the Chinese the latest methods of training men to impart job instruction. He carried credentials from the

American Society of Mechanical Engineers and has established what promises to become a very fruitful relationship between that organization and the Chinese Institute of Engineers.

A machine-shop supervisor, with responsibility in this country for directing 20,000 workmen, has personally visited the larger factories in China and has given instruction in machine-shop practice. A specialist with long experience lent by one of the telephone and telegraph companies has prepared for the Chinese Government, after investigations on the spot, a program for the national expansion of China's long-distance telephone system.

Specialists in the dissemination of news by radio and the press have served the Chinese Ministry of Information during the emergency situation by lending technical assistance.

Two specialists in management prepared a plan which the Chinese Government has used in improving the efficiency of the vast network of Chinese Industrial Cooperatives.

Related to the task of getting things done in China is the job of getting technical information in bulk into the country and of bringing to the knowledge of the western world the latest findings of Chinese research workers. In these operations the role of the English language is most important.

The wide-spread knowledge of English in China can no doubt be attributed partly to the fact that two of the greatest factors in China's trade, the British Commonwealth of Nations and the United States, both employ that language. It may also be ascribed to the fact that in the last 75 years several thousand Chinese have come to the United States for their education. We take it as a matter of course that a large proportion of the educated classes in China can read material printed in English.

Many persons in China who understand English are teachers or are Government employees in teaching or in other professions; that is, they are in the salaried classes. During the seven years of Japanese invasion, men of this type have been subjected to two special hardships: economic, because of the scarcity of consumer goods and inflation; and intellectual, caused by the dwindling of the normal flow of printed material from abroad. To alleviate somewhat the second hardship the Department very early began to send to China microfilmed copies of technical and learned

journals. Over a dozen centers equipped with projectors and readers have been set up where these microfilms may be used. Microfilm is impressive. On a hundred-foot strip weighing about one pound—packed for shipment—can be recorded twelve pounds of books. Any number of positives can be made from a negative. Whereas a book serves only one person at a time, microfilmed copies can serve an indefinite number of persons. To overcome the impossibility of shipping large quantities of books, microfilms seem to be a most efficient device. Yet microfilms are, for ordinary readers, a most unsatisfactory substitute for printed books and magazines, especially in west China, where the electric current necessary for the use of projectors is generally weak and variable in voltage. Reading microfilms is irksome and hard on the eyesight. Nevertheless, this method of learning about the latest scientific advances is much better than nothing. For example, excerpts may be copied in China. There are three separate services distributing mimeographed selections from the microfilms. For research purposes, of course, microfilms are admirable. The State Department makes a practice of filling requests for special articles. For such service research workers have expressed deep gratitude.

A powerful stimulus to research lies in the possibility of sharing results with the scientific world. The State Department decided that it could be of aid to research workers with education in English by awarding small honorariums to such persons for translating research papers recently produced that might be of outstanding merit. A committee was set up in China in 1943 to select the papers. Up to this time 70 honorariums have been paid for translations. The translators and authors of some of these papers have had the further gratification of having 29 of them accepted for publication by learned journals in the United States. Another translation project to strengthen cultural bonds between the United States and China during the war is the forthcoming translation into Chinese of approximately twenty books about the United States. These translation projects have the character of reciprocity which the State Department regards as the core of desirable cultural relations with other countries.

Life on the temporary campuses of refugee universities in west China has very depressing aspects. The scarcity of clothing and other ar-

ticles of ordinary use and the inflation have made the daily living of faculty members very hard. It is they who, in the practice of their professions, have especially felt China's isolation, because they had been accustomed to keep up their contact with other countries through foreign literature, the supply of which has practically ceased. Text-books, Chinese as well as foreign, have become more and more inadequate in quantity, as have laboratory equipment and even ordinary stationery. Although the number of young people eager to enroll in colleges has even increased during the hostilities, some members of the teaching staffs have been forced to resign in order to earn more money to support their families. The work of those remaining has thereby been increased.

Clearly it is the professors and instructors in the Chinese universities, whether or not they speak English, on whom we must largely rely if we hope to realize the ambition that American and Chinese youth shall grow up with a feeling of mutual acquaintance and confidence. The State Department felt that the temporary isolation of Chinese and American colleges from each other might be diminished if some Chinese faculty members were to visit the United States.

In 1943 the State Department extended invitations through the American Embassy to six Chinese national universities to nominate members of their respective faculties to come to the United States as guests of the Department for about one year.¹ The Department said it hoped that the visits would benefit the visitors themselves by enabling them to pursue further studies in their particular subjects and that their institutions would benefit through the contact that the visitors would have had in the United States. The visitors, it was observed, would have opportunities to give lectures, speeches, or interviews in which they could speak of China's educational needs.

In preparation for the visitors, officers of the Department wrote informally to numerous persons and institutions telling them about the visits and asking for collaboration in making them profitable. When the professors arrived in Washington they were consulted in regard to their plans. When decisions had been made the State Department wrote letters of introduction and arranged railway transportation. There is no question but that these six visitors have been benefited

by their sojourn in the United States. Habits of living in this country, as compared with China, are untouched by the war. The professors recuperated in health while they were profiting professionally from the experience. No heavy duties have been imposed on the Chinese professors. No attempt has been made to utilize their presence in the United States for any ulterior purpose. Four of these Chinese guests were invited to take part in a conference on Chinese subjects conducted by the Harris Foundation at the University of Chicago. The papers prepared by these and other Chinese participants were published in a book entitled *Voices From Unoccupied China*.

These visits have been so profitable and agreeable to all concerned that six additional invitations have been sent out.² The new party of visitors will include two university presidents and a representative of the Academia Sinica, which corresponds to our own National Academy of Sciences, all of whom have been selected by their respective institutions. All of the 12 representatives chosen in China are well versed in the English language, and, with few exceptions, have spent considerable time in American educational institutions. The State Department suggested that English-speaking men be chosen on this occasion, so that Americans might get, at first hand, information about conditions in China. From the viewpoint of cultural relations, contacts are even more important when the educators of two countries have no language in common, and this is a point the Department keeps constantly in mind. The 12 invitations to China have brought to this country two sociologists, a philosopher, a political scientist, a physiologist, a specialist in international relations, a geographer, a botanist, a neurophysiologist, a chemist, a specialist in Chinese literature, and a physicist.

To return this exchange in the academic sphere the State Department has made it possible for a prominent American geographer, who is also an author and a college professor, to visit Chinese universities. He is answering requests for lectures on subjects in his field and is in other ways promoting solidarity between academic groups in our two nations. This representative received his appointment as visiting professor from the Na-

¹ BULLETIN of June 12, 1943, p. 522.

² BULLETIN of June 10, 1944, p. 537, and June 17, 1944, p. 564.

tional Academy of Sciences, as well as from the State Department, and bore greetings from the Academy to the Academia Sinica of the Chinese Government.

The outlook for friendly relations between two countries is likely to be improved to the extent that the people of each, particularly the intelligent and influential people, come to understand each other. The process may be thwarted as in Axis countries by a few individuals who by hook or by crook have acquired power to control the thoughts and actions of their fellow citizens, but in the democratic era after the war personal reactions will become of ever-increasing importance in determining the character of international relations.

With this principle in mind the State Department hopes that persons of other countries who come to the United States for education and training will acquire not only the technical information they seek but also an acquaintance with our customs and national culture and a friendly feeling for us as American citizens. In this particular phase of our relations with China an officer of the State Department has visited most of the colleges where large groups of Chinese students are found and has personally talked with as many as possible. He achieved gratifying results in establishing contacts among the Chinese students and the residents and organizations in different communities. In the case of Chinese technicians who are in training in factories and public utilities the State Department made an arrangement for an experienced man who speaks Chinese to visit such trainees in typical industries, to talk with them, and to recommend measures whereby the trainees may have pleasant and profitable contacts with their environment outside of working hours.

In another effort in the same direction, the Department is preparing a handbook in Chinese containing information that will explain aspects of American life that persons newly arrived from China might not otherwise understand. It is hoped that the handbook will make their entrance into our society easier and pleasanter.

In corresponding with educators and scientific institutions in China the Department frequently learns of situations in which small quantities of chemicals, a few books, or other cultural materials would be of great assistance to such persons and

institutions in their activities. The meagerness of transportation available for such articles has hampered the collaboration in which the State Department is engaged. It was with deep appreciation, therefore, that the State Department received the consent of the Vice President to carry with him on his plane a limited quantity of these materials on his visit to China.¹ Mr. Wallace left Washington on May 20, 1944 taking with him over 90 separate packages, addressed to 43 separate institutions scattered over several Chinese provinces. Each parcel bore the following statement: "The contents of this package are sent to you under the program of cultural relations of the Department of State of the United States as a small evidence of the continuance of the longtime cultural exchanges between our two countries." Every article was sent in response to a request or to fill a known need. A few items will show the general nature of the shipment. Parcels of books and current journals were sent to a dozen universities. To a national university went laboratory equipment and some supplies for the manufacture of drugs; to the Ministry of Education, a collection of college catalogs and curriculum outlines for use in developing instruction in animal husbandry; to the governor of a province, copies, illustrated with photographs, of the investigations of an American specialist into the development of the wool industry; to the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, a wide selection of pamphlets, manuals, and charts for use in manufacturing without power machinery; to the International Cultural Service, electric bulbs for microfilm readers; to several institutions, about thirty documentary motion pictures; and to the American Embassy at Chungking, a set of reproductions of American paintings and a collection of books and pamphlets for distribution.

In the spring of 1943 the Chinese Ministry of Education informed the Embassy that over a hundred 16-millimeter silent projectors were in use in provincial and municipal educational systems and in other organizations under the Ministry's direction and asked the Embassy to obtain educational films from the United States for use by such agencies. Among the subjects suggested were irrigation, sanitation, medicine, social and living conditions, and films for instruction in physics, biology, history, and other school studies. The Ministry preferred that Chinese titles be

¹ BULLETIN of June 24, 1944, p. 586.

added in the United States. Over twenty films in the fields described by the Ministry of Education have been selected and are in course of preparation with Chinese titles. About one hundred reels are being given Chinese sound tracks for general audiences. These depict such subjects as the "Bonneville Dam", flood control on the Mississippi River, the growing of winter wheat, and the sights of Washington, D. C. Films that have reached China have been favorably received. A picture on American plastics was shown at the national meeting of the Chinese Institute of Engineers. Officials in many Chinese Government agencies have viewed a group of films on steel production in the United States. The War and State Departments cooperated in preparing a picture with Chinese sound track on the training of Chinese air officers in the United States, a copy of which was presented to Generalissimo Chiang. Among the motion pictures taken to China by the Vice President were ten dealing with medical, surgical and public-health matters, all of which were gifts to the Chinese from American hospitals and other institutions.

A pleasant feature of the State Department's cultural-exchange activities with China has been the interest and enthusiasm it has evoked in the United States. When opportunities have been presented to American citizens and organizations to take part, they have shown genuine pleasure in working with the Chinese in building up their country. Perhaps this feeling is akin to the respect we feel for an American community whose members go out energetically to get for themselves good roads, good schools, plentiful and cheap electricity, a higher standard of living, and prosperous banks. Whatever the reason, it has been demonstrated that cultural collaboration with the Chinese people needs no urging with the American people.

One of the American specialists in China, for example, found that a Chinese enterprise particularly needed a steam hammer and that one would have to be made on the spot. On behalf of the Chinese he asked that the Department find out whether blueprints for such a hammer could be obtained and how much they would cost. The Department referred this inquiry to an American firm, the same one that had temporarily released the specialist. It soon received a reply that such equipment was obsolete in the United States, that special plans would have to be drawn at a cost of

\$2,000, and that the firm would defray the cost. The blueprints have long since arrived in China.

Agencies of the Chinese Government are constantly seeking opportunities for the training of young technicians in the different agencies of this Government. Almost invariably, except when security precautions during the war have prevented it, officials of the Government have gladly received such Chinese trainees even though it meant an added responsibility.

The same desire to cooperate culturally with the Chinese is found in business firms, universities, societies with national memberships, and even in State governments. Mention has been made of the welcome that the city school systems gave to Chinese graduate students as visiting teachers or consultants. The president of a great university recently called at the Department. In the conversation it casually developed that the university had found ways to support two promising Chinese students whom the war had impoverished. The university had also paid for the printing of a handbook for students, in Chinese, compiled by the students themselves.

An American specialist in the standardization of serums, who has just arrived in China, took with him a collection of laboratory equipment, serums, vaccines and bacteriological cultures, and copies of all procedures used in the manufacturing and testing of biologic products. They were supplied to him out of surplus stocks by the State department of health of which he was a member. This collection of articles, which was worth thousands of dollars, could not have been obtained from any other one source. It was all contributed gratis for the use of the Chinese.

The Department's activities described in this article have overcome many of the wartime obstacles to Chinese-American educational, scientific, and technical cooperation. This type of cooperation is important to our joint war against Japan because it creates solidarity behind the lines. It is vastly important, also, because it prevents a gap in the century-old cultural interchange between American and Chinese organizations and citizens. A continuous flow of ideas and persons from each country to the other through the war period will prevent any set-back to the greatly expanded cooperation that will begin in the stirring period of world reconversion and reconstruction after the war.

Working Together

ADDRESS BY THE UNDER SECRETARY OF STATE ¹

[Released to the press July 5]

MR. PRESIDENT AND MEMBERS OF THE GRADUATING CLASS OF 1944: It is a great honor to be invited to Rutgers University to participate with you today in your commencement exercises.

I should like to discuss with you briefly the subject of cooperation—that is, the ability of men to work together smoothly, effectively, and harmoniously. Cooperation is not an abstract, ideal virtue; it is a vital, practical necessity for success in life. It is indispensable to the solution of the problems which we as a nation, and you as individual citizens of that nation, will face in the years that lie ahead.

No matter what your talents are, no matter what your training has been, or how great your ability, you will not make the contribution to your nation of which you are capable unless you learn quickly and effectively the secret of working with your fellowmen in a spirit of tolerance and understanding and good-will. This has been the great common characteristic of our American national leaders and heroes. It is the very foundation of our greatness as a nation. And it is the indispensable basis for the momentous effort we are now making to preserve our nation's freedom.

From battle-fronts in all parts of the world new and inspiring reports come to us every day of the successes of our armies and the armies of our Allies. To the winning of these far-flung victories have been devoted the full strength and resources of the freedom-loving peoples of the world—the energy and courage of our soldiers, sailors, and airmen, and of our merchant seamen; the long hours of the workers in war factories, in shipyards, and on the farms; the skill of our scientists and inventors in their laboratories; our raw materials—coal, iron, copper, and petroleum; our great war industries now producing guns and planes in such incredible volume; and finally the hopes and ideals of all of us for a decent world where peace and opportunity will be secure for all men.

We and the other United Nations are fighting our brutal enemies with resources and energies of staggering size and force. Yet all of this would be just so much useless equipment and wasted energy had we not, as individuals and as nations,

learned the vital lesson of team play—each performing his individual job for the benefit of all.

Consider the war, for a moment, on the simplest level.

A landing boat approaches the shore of France. Its bottom scrapes on the sand. The ramp falls, and a platoon of men advance onto the beach. Unless every man in that platoon can depend on every other man to know his individual job and to do it effectively and courageously, unless the men have complete faith in their commanding officer and he has faith in them—in short, unless they can all work together as a single effective fighting team, a small strip of beach may remain in the hands of the enemy. A small but vital step in the invasion may fail.

For, in the final analysis, what is an invading army? It is nothing more than thousands upon thousands of small groups of men trained to work together, each group depending upon all the others to do their part in carrying out a common plan of attack.

We are winning the victories which will bring this war to a successful conclusion through teamwork. But this cooperation does not start at the battlefronts. The grand strategy of this war is a gigantic pattern of cooperation which involves our entire nation.

American Government, labor, and business have had to plan together and work together in order to turn out in the shortest possible time the best possible weapons for our men to use on the battlefronts. It is difficult to realize today that we were forced to start practically from scratch, only a few short years ago, to marshal a fighting strength greater than that which our enemies have spent many years building.

Through our democratic processes we have planned together how to use our great resources to the best common advantage. We have depended on our scientists and inventors to keep pace with the technological advances of war; upon our engineers to plan the mass production of the most modern weapons; and upon the management, fore-

¹ Delivered before the graduating class at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J., July 5, 1944.

men, and workers of our industries to carry through as a team and deliver the tools to our men on the battle-fronts.

Our aircraft factories and shipyards through intricate systems of cooperative mass production are producing the greatest air fleet and merchant fleet in the world. It is easy to forget that when this war started neither ships nor planes had ever been turned out before by large-scale, mass-production methods. We have learned to do this only through the most intimate teamwork. The technical knowledge of our great industries has been pooled so that the latest techniques could be available to all. Engineers, workmen, management, and Government all work together to achieve miracles of production.

In these last few years, our farmers, in cooperation with the Government, have achieved the greatest food production in our nation's history.

All this is a part of the victories we are winning today.

From the first stages of preparation, this gigantic cooperative effort has cut across many lines which in the past have divided men. This nation is now working together as a single unit despite differences of outlook between geographic sections, political parties, economic classes, and religious beliefs. And we are, moreover, only one of a great group of United Nations all working together toward the one common goal of victory.

Hitler's strategy of divide and conquer has proved an utter failure. Men of different nationalities, race, color, and creed, are fighting side by side today under a single command. Through lend-lease and reverse lend-lease, and other forms of mutual aid, the United Nations are sharing their material resources so that the hardest possible blows can be struck against our common enemies.

It has been my privilege to serve in the building of our country's defenses since May of 1940, when—during the dark days of the fall of France—the President called into being again the National Defense Advisory Commission. Up until that time I had served in large American industrial organizations. I found when I started to work in Washington that the job to be done involved the same cooperation and team play, the same give-and-take of ideas, that underlies the success of any large business unit. Only now this teamwork had to be on a nation-wide basis.

I could give you countless examples of the way in which American business and labor and Government have pulled together to make possible the gigantic supply achievements of this country. I remember a day in October 1941, for instance, just after I had undertaken the direction of our lend-lease program. We received an urgent request from the Russians for barbed wire. The great battles before Moscow were starting. The Russians were desperately short of barbed wire, and they needed 4,000 tons urgently. The only convoy on which it could sail in time to do any good was leaving in two weeks.

Four thousand tons of barbed wire is enough to stretch from Moscow to Sidney, Australia, and back again, with a good bit left over. After telephoning to every possible source in this country we had found immediately available only 700 tons of barbed wire suitable for military purposes.

In the days that followed, wire mills worked 24 hours a day; our Army dug down into its stocks for us; the British turned over all the wire they had in this country. I remember calling an associate in OPM late one night and asking him if we were going to make it. He stated: "It's an impossibility, but we're all staying here tonight to make it possible. We'll do it."

It was done. When the convoy sailed for Russia the barbed wire was aboard.

Let me give you another example of teamwork.

A few days after the American and British forces landed in North Africa, an air raid on one of the major ports there seriously damaged the electrical equipment needed to run the port. Some of the damage could be repaired on the spot, but one small part of the equipment which was absolutely vital to the working of the whole system had been blown to bits. General Eisenhower sent a special messenger by plane to Washington. He arrived on a Saturday.

The WPB scoured the country and found only one piece of equipment that would do the work. It was being made by a large American electrical company on a special rush order for the Navy. When the situation was explained to the Navy Department they released the equipment because the Army's need was even more urgent than their own.

The workers in the plant worked night and day over the weekend to finish the equipment and adapt it to the French electrical system. On Tues-

day the Army officer was able to start back to North Africa by plane with the needed equipment by his side.

Gentlemen, that is the kind of teamwork between Government, industry, labor, and our armed services that is making possible the victories we are winning today.

Terrible as is the tragedy of this war it has taught us momentous lessons. Although our nation is vast and diversified we have proved that we can still work together as a united whole as we have done in every national crisis since we proclaimed our national independence in 1776.

This lesson we must not forget in the days to come. Demobilization for peace is no easier than mobilization for war. It will require the patience and cooperation of all Americans. We can accomplish this transition with the same success as we have turned our energies and resources to war only if we continue the same full measure of team play and mutual confidence.

This war has taught us another momentous lesson. Great nations, too, can work together in intimate and fruitful cooperation. The 35 nations which compose the United Nations family are winning this war by planning together and working together with a common purpose and a common goal.

This also contains a lesson which we must not forget. The future security of the world depends upon no one nation alone; it depends upon the peace-loving nations of the world learning to work together in peace as they have learned to work together in war. I have high hopes that the nations of the world will be successful in finding a formula on which to base that full measure of international cooperation through which alone we can maintain peace and security for all mankind.

I have told you of cooperation on a national scale and on an international scale. These same principles apply throughout our lives—in whatever tasks we turn our hands to. Many of you will doubtless go from this university into the armed service of your country. There you will find that teamwork and mutual confidence are everything. When you return home again after victory has been won you will find this same habit of working together equally indispensable to your own individual success in life.

Cooperation is far more than an amiable and friendly state of mind. It is hard work. There are

inevitable misunderstandings and set-backs which have to be ironed out with patience and tolerance. Each of us has his own individual personal peculiarities, and we must be sympathetic with the peculiarities and shortcomings of others if we expect them to work with us in the same spirit of sympathy and friendly cooperation.

A vital element in working together effectively is to learn respect for the ideas and principles of your fellowmen. If you will give the other man's point of view fair and sympathetic consideration, you will find in most cases that he has valid reasons for his beliefs just as you have for your own. After thrashing the matter out in a full and honest discussion you will often find that both of you have arrived at a greater common truth.

That is the way of democratic debate, the principle of working together in the shaping of ideas. It is the method by which the greatest decisions of our nation are made. It is the source of the great basic principles upon which the structure of our national life is founded.

Men cannot work together unless they respect one another, for the philosophy of cooperation is based on the dignity and nobility of man. It is an American philosophy rooted deep in our democratic traditions. The future of your lives and the future of your nation depend upon your boldly carrying forward this great national heritage of working together for the common good in a spirit of faith and good-will.

I have just returned from Britain, where it was my privilege to see first-hand the tremendous striking-power which we and our Allies have mobilized for victory. I could not begin to describe to you the tremendous volume of weapons and equipment which we, through our cooperative efforts, have been able to send overseas for our fighting men. I could not begin to tell you of the complexity and magnitude of the gigantic cooperative military operations by which our victories are being won.

At the basis of all these great accomplishments lies the philosophy of working together. With that philosophy to guide us I am confident that we shall win this war. But we as a nation cannot for a moment become over-confident and thereby cease to work together. There are still bitter battles to be fought and won before we achieve victory.

(Continued on next page)

Visit of General Charles de Gaulle to the United States

General de Gaulle arrived at the Washington National Airport at 4 o'clock on the afternoon of July 6. He was received with full military honors, including the Army Air Forces band, three squadrons with colors from Bolling Field, and a battery salute of 17 guns. After the commanding officer of the airport escorted him from the plane to the Guard of Honor, General de Gaulle was greeted by General Marshall, Admiral King, Gen-

eral Arnold, and Lieutenant General Vandegrift. The President's aides, General Watson and Rear Admiral Wilson Brown, accompanied him from the airport to the White House, where he was received by the President and members of the Cabinet in the White House diplomatic reception room. Later the President and General de Gaulle had tea on the south portico of the White House, after which the General proceeded to Blair House.

Other conferences were held between the President and General de Gaulle at noon on July 7 and at 11:30 on July 8.

Limiting the Production of Opium

STATEMENT BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE

[Released to the press July 3]

House Joint Resolution 241, introduced by the Honorable Walter H. Judd, Representative from the State of Minnesota, which was approved by the President after having been passed unanimously by both the House of Representatives on June 5, 1944, and the Senate on June 22, 1944, is in line with the long-standing opium policy of the United States. This resolution requests the President to urge upon the governments of those countries where the cultivation of poppy plant exists the necessity of immediately limiting the production of opium to the amount required for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes. It is hoped that the opium-producing countries of the world will now cooperate in an international program to wipe out drug addiction and the illicit traffic in narcotic drugs.

When the Chinese Government in 1941 prohibited the use of smoking opium in China, and the British and Netherland Governments on November 10, 1943 announced their decisions to prohibit the use of opium for smoking and to abolish opium monopolies in their territories in the Far East when those territories are freed from Japanese occupation, the way was prepared for the suppression of the traffic in smoking opium in those and other areas. The provisions of article 6 of the Hague Convention of 1912, to which more than 60 countries are parties, calling for the gradual suppression of the manufacture, the internal traffic in, and the use of prepared opium, can now be ful-

filled. In its announcement of November 10, 1943 the British Government warned, however, that the success of the enforcement of prohibition will depend on the steps taken to limit and control the production of opium in other countries. The Judd Resolution is a public announcement of the conviction of the Congress that this World War ought to be not an occasion for permitting expansion and spreading of illicit traffic in opium but rather an opportunity for completely eliminating it.

The Department of State, having received instructions from the President pursuant to the Resolution of the Congress, will undertake to secure the cooperation of the opium-producing countries in the solution of this world problem.

WORKING TOGETHER—Continued from p. 46

There are still difficult problems to solve before we win the peace that follows.

No matter how great the difficulties which lie ahead, however, I look to the future with complete confidence; for we are approaching our problems, nationally and internationally, in a spirit of co-operation and mutual trust.

With faith in the principles of freedom for which we are now fighting with all our might we shall win through to victory over our brutal enemies who would destroy those principles. With that faith, we shall in the end bring about a world where peace and the blessings of peace will be secure for all mankind.

United States Policy Relating to Opium

By GEORGE A. MORLOCK¹

House Joint Resolution 241, approved on July 1, 1944, requesting the President to urge upon the governments of those countries where the cultivation of poppy plants exists the necessity of immediately limiting the production of opium to the amount required for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes, focuses attention on the narcotics policies of the United States.

The interest of the United States in narcotics control increased considerably soon after our annexation of the Philippine Islands in 1898, where a government monopoly for sales of opium to addicts, principally Chinese, for the satisfaction of their addiction, had been legalized prior to annexation. The Congress of the United States passed an act, approved March 3, 1905, providing "That after March first, nineteen hundred and eight, it shall be unlawful to import into the Philippine Islands opium, in whatever form, except by the Government, and for medicinal purposes only, and at no time shall it be lawful to sell opium to any native of the Philippine Islands except for medicinal purposes."

Recognizing that nations acting alone are unable adequately to protect themselves against the international illicit traffic in narcotic drugs, the United States decided to cooperate with other nations in the control of the legal trade in these dangerous drugs and in international efforts to suppress their abuse. It took the initiative in bringing about the first international conference on the subject, which was held in Shanghai in 1909, and later proposed the convening of the conference which resulted in the international opium convention signed at The Hague on January 23, 1912. The American Government took part in the conferences held at The Hague in 1912, in 1913, and in 1914; participated in the Second Geneva Drug Conference of 1924-25; and in the Narcotics Limitation Conference of 1931 held at Geneva; was represented by an observer at the Bangkok Conference of 1931 on Opium Smoking in the Far East, and sent delegates to the Conference for the Suppression of the Illicit Traffic in Dangerous

Drugs at Geneva in 1936. In those conferences representatives of the Government of the United States clearly stated that the policy of the United States was to limit the production of the poppy plant and manufacture of narcotic drugs strictly to medical and scientific requirements and to consider use for any other purpose as abuse. The Department of State, through its representatives at international conferences and at meetings of the Opium Advisory Committee at Geneva, has constantly carried on a vigorous campaign looking to the suppression of the illicit traffic in narcotic drugs and the abuse of those drugs.

The delegates of the United States withdrew from the Geneva Drug Conference of 1925 when it became apparent that the Conference would not restrict the production of opium and coca leaves to the medicinal and scientific requirements of the world. The withdrawal of the American delegation was based on a memorandum by the chairman of the American delegation, the Honorable Stephen G. Porter, addressed to the president of the Conference on February 6, 1925. As this memorandum outlines principles of policy to which the United States has consistently adhered, it is reproduced below in full:

"On October 18, 1923, the League of Nations extended an invitation to the powers signatory to The Hague Convention, including the United States, to participate in an international conference which was called for the purpose of giving effect to the following principles, subject to reservations made by certain nations regarding smoking opium.

"One. If the purpose of The Hague Opium Convention is to be achieved according to its spirit and true intent it must be recognized that the use of opium products for other than medical and scientific purpose is an abuse and not legitimate.

"Two. In order to prevent the abuse of these products it is necessary to exercise the control of the production of raw opium in such a manner that there will be no surplus available for non-medical and non-scientific purpose.

"The joint resolution adopted by the Congress of the United States on May 15, 1924, authorizing

¹The author of this article is an officer in the Office of Far Eastern Affairs, Department of State.

our participation in the present conference, quoted the principles referred to in the preamble and expressly stipulated that the representatives of the United States shall sign no agreement which does not fulfill the conditions necessary for the suppression of the narcotic drug traffic as set forth in the preamble.

"Despite more than two months of discussion and repeated adjournments it now clearly appears that the purpose for which the Conference was called cannot be accomplished. The reports of the various committees of the Conference plainly indicate that there is no likelihood under present conditions that the production of raw opium and coca leaves will be restricted to the medicinal and scientific needs of the world. In fact the nature of the reservations made show that no appreciable reduction in raw opium may be expected.

"It was hoped that if the nations in whose territories the use of smoking opium is temporarily permitted would, in pursuance of the obligation undertaken under Chapter Two of The Hague Convention, adopt measures restricting the importation of raw opium for the manufacture of smoking opium or would agree to suppress the traffic within a definite period, such action would materially reduce the market for raw opium and an extensive limitation of production would inevitably follow.

"Unfortunately, however, these nations with the exception of Japan are not prepared to reduce the consumption of smoking opium. Unless the producing nations agree to reduce production and prevent smuggling from their territories and then only in the event of an adequate guarantee being given that the obligations undertaken by the producing nations would be effectively and promptly fulfilled, no restriction of the production of raw opium under such conditions can be expected.

"In the matter of manufactured drugs and the control of transportation an improvement over The Hague Convention is noticeable. There is, however, no likelihood of obtaining a complete control of all opium and coca leaf derivative irrespective of the measure of control provided. For manufactured drugs it is believed that by reason of the very small bulk, the ease of transportation with minimum risk of detection, and the large financial gains to be obtained from their illicit handling, such drugs and their derivatives

can only be effectively controlled if the production of the raw opium and coca leaves from which they are obtained is strictly limited to medical and scientific purposes. This the Conference is unable to accomplish.

"In the circumstances the delegation of the United States in pursuance of instructions received from its Government has no alternative under terms of the joint resolution authorizing participation in the conference other than to withdraw, as it could not sign the agreement which it is proposed to conclude. We desire to make it clear that withdrawal from the present conference does not mean that the United States will cease its efforts through international cooperation for the suppression of the illicit traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs. The United States recognizes that the world-wide traffic in habit-forming drugs can be suppressed only by international cooperation but believes that for the present at least greater strides in the control of the traffic may be hoped for if it should continue to work towards this end upon the basis of The Hague Convention of 1912."

The narcotic drugs which are the subject of international cooperation are the principal habit-forming ones, namely, opium and its derivatives, the coca leaf and its derivatives, and *Cannabis sativa* and its derivatives. Opium is the coagulated juice obtained from the capsules of the soporific poppy (*Papaver somniferum*). The principal derivatives of opium are morphine, heroin, and codeine. The principal derivative of the coca leaf is cocaine. *Cannabis sativa* is Indian hemp, from which hashish, marihuana, and other dangerous drugs are made.

House Joint Resolution 241 relates to the opium problem only. There is more immediate need of solving the opium problem than of solving the coca-leaf and marihuana problems.

The results of the abusive use of opium and its derivatives are so destructive of health and so far-reaching socially and economically that governmental control over them is generally recognized as an absolute necessity. As the International Labor Office in its report of 1936 entitled "Opium and Labor" has so well stated, "Opium smoking is injurious to the workers, impedes their social and economic development, impairs their health and decreases their efficiency and, when it is practiced continuously, shatters the health and

Sweden to Represent Finnish Interests in United States

[Released to the press July 3]

The Counselor of the Swedish Legation called at the Department of State on the morning of July 3 and delivered a note stating that the Swedish Government had acceded to the request of the Finnish Government to represent Finnish interests in the United States.

increases the death rate of the smokers, and tends to reduce the rate of economic and social progress in the districts affected." The effects of addiction to morphine and heroin are much worse.

The principal cause of illicit traffic is surplus production. The United States has been making and continues to make every effort to persuade the poppy-producing countries of the world to reduce production. For this reason the United States has discouraged the planting of the opium poppy within its territories and possessions for the production of opium and opium products, although it could easily supply its entire requirements. Nevertheless, large-scale production continues in other parts of the world. At the present time annual production of raw opium has been estimated by Government experts, in the absence of exact figures, as follows:

	Kilograms
Afghanistan-----	50,000
Bulgaria-----	7,000
Burma-----	18,000
China (occupied and unoccupied)-----	1,000,000
Chosen-----	35,000
India-----	300,000
Iran-----	600,000
Japan-----	16,000
Thailand-----	400
Turkey-----	250,000
U. S. S. R.-----	75,000
Yugoslavia-----	55,000

The total estimated annual production amounts to 2,406,400 kilograms or 5,294,080 pounds. There is also extensive production in Central Europe of morphine directly from poppy straw amounting to about 6,500 kilograms. The actual needs of the world for manufactured narcotic drugs from 1933 to 1938 averaged 284,715 kilograms (626,373

pounds) annually. It is estimated that after the war annual needs for medical purposes will not exceed 400,000 kilograms (880,000 pounds).

The Governments of the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, after pursuing for many years a policy of gradual suppression of the use of smoking opium, decided last year to make a change in policy in view of the new conditions which will prevail in their Far Eastern territories as a consequence of the Japanese occupation. On November 10, 1943 they announced that on regaining control of their Far Eastern territories they would suppress the smoking of opium and would not re-establish the opium monopolies.¹ This means that a market which averaged 347,036 kilograms of opium annually during the years 1933 to 1938 will disappear. It is obvious, therefore, that, if present world production continues at the rate of 2,400,000 kilograms a year, about 2,000,000 kilograms will remain for the satisfaction of drug addiction. The United States is anxious to prevent this surplus production, thus liberating several million souls throughout the world from the awful slavery of drug addiction.

There is immediate need for the opium-producing and consuming countries of the world to join in an international convention to limit and control the cultivation of the opium poppy and to suppress the illicit traffic in opium. The United States, as one of the principal victims, is deeply interested in and is prepared to cooperate with all nations in efforts to solve this problem.

A number of narcotics-control measures have become effective during the last 35 years and will facilitate the solution of the problem.

First, the Hague Opium Convention of 1912 is the cornerstone and basis of the entire system of international control. Among other things it makes certain provisions for the control of opium and other dangerous drugs and obligates the contracting parties to take measures for the gradual and effective suppression of the manufacture of, internal trade in, and use of prepared opium.

Second, the Geneva Drug Convention of 1925 deals principally with the control of internal and international trade in opium and in the manufactured derivatives of opium, the coca leaf, and *Cannabis sativa*. The system established in the convention whereby export authorizations can be issued only against import certificates has resulted

¹ BULLETIN of Nov. 13, 1943, p. 331.

in much more effective control of the international movement of narcotic drugs. The convention also provided for the establishment of an international body, the Permanent Central Opium Board, to compile statistics, to watch over the course of international trade, and to give warning of excessive accumulations of narcotics in any country.

Third, the Narcotics Limitation Convention which was signed at Geneva on July 13, 1931 deals with the limitation of manufacture of narcotic drugs and controls the distribution of narcotic drugs. Limitation is brought about in the following manner: The parties to the convention undertake to furnish annually for examination by the Drug Supervisory Body, an organ established by this convention, estimates of their requirements for the ensuing year in respect of each of the drugs. This body consists of four persons, some of whom have had medical experience and some of whom have had administrative experience. The body has no power to revise an estimate without the consent of the government furnishing it but is empowered to ask for explanations. Every government has the right to submit supplementary estimates. Countries which are not parties to the convention are also invited to furnish estimates; if they do not, the supervisory body frames estimates for them. At the conclusion of its examination, the supervisory body issues for the guidance of all governments a statement containing the estimates as decided upon. These provisions as to estimates are the foundation on which the scheme of limitation is based.

In addition, mention should be made of the Opium Advisory Committee, an organ of the League of Nations, whose functions are limited to investigating and reporting on existing narcotic conditions and recommending the action to be taken by the League of Nations and by governments. The United States has never accepted the invitation which was extended to assume full membership in this committee, but has cooperated with the committee through a representative who has attended its meetings in an expert and advisory capacity.

Other forces have been or are now operating to prevent the abuse of narcotic drugs. At the end of 1935 the exportation of opium from India to the Far East was forbidden. In 1941 the Chinese Government enacted laws prohibiting the cultivation of the opium poppy, the smoking of opium, and all

traffic in opium and narcotics except for medical purposes. In connection with the present military effort to remove the Japanese forces from the territories which they now occupy in the Southwest Pacific and China it will be the policy of all American expeditionary forces, under American command, immediately upon the occupation of a part or the whole of any of these territories, to seize all narcotic drugs intended for other than medical and scientific purposes which they may discover and to close existing opium monopolies, opium shops and dens.

In view of the large world production of opium over and above medical needs, the United States has, whenever opportunity offered, discouraged production in this hemisphere, because new production in any area, even if restricted and controlled, results in making an equal quantity in an old producing area available to non-medical use or to the illicit traffic. The experience of opium-producing countries is that, even with severe laws well enforced, it is extremely difficult to prevent the escape of a part of the production into the international illicit traffic and to check the spread of addiction and illegal use within the country. The history of narcotics in China, India, and Iran confirms this statement.

The United States regards the present time as propitious for the poppy-producing and narcotic-drugs-consuming countries to give serious consideration to the advisability of joining immediately after the war in a convention for the limitation and control of the cultivation of the opium poppy strictly to medicinal and scientific requirements.

THE FOREIGN SERVICE

Consular Offices

The American Legation at Helsinki, Finland, was closed on June 30, 1944.

The American Consulate at Bahía Blanca, Argentina, was closed on June 30, 1944.

The American Consulate at San Sebastián, Spain, was opened to the public on July 1, 1944.

The American Consulate at Cayenne, French Guiana, will be closed to the public on July 10, 1944.

Changes in Travel Regulations Between the United States and Canada

[Released to the press July 6]

Recent changes in the regulations governing travel between the United States and Canada make it advisable for the Canadian Government and the United States Government jointly to summarize and explain the documentary restrictions imposed by the two countries on such travel and the need for them.

The United States Government has recently announced further relaxation in the border-crossing regulations affecting all Canadian citizens and British subjects domiciled, permanently residing, or stationed in Canada desiring to enter the United States for visits of 29 days or less. Hereafter no passport, visa, or border-crossing card will be necessary for entry into the United States by such persons whose purpose in entering the United States for 29 days or less is that of business or pleasure.

The relaxation in the requirements for travel across the border between Canada and the United States will not deprive citizens of Canada domiciled therein or other British subjects domiciled or residing in Canada of the privilege of obtaining border-crossing cards or continuing to use such cards, issued on or after November 14, 1941, for border-crossing purposes. These cards are valid for an indefinite period for border-crossing purposes and need not be revalidated by United States consuls or United States immigration officials. Those persons who make frequent visits to the United States and do not have a passport or border-crossing card, valid or expired, will find it convenient to obtain a border-crossing card which will expedite entry especially at busy ports. Persons not using border-crossing cards will find it helpful to carry some means of identification, such as a birth or baptismal certificate or other document which may assist in establishing their identity and nationality.

When a visit will be for more than 29 days the applicant should apply to any United States consul for an appropriate visa.

Passport requirements for Canadians entering the United States were first inaugurated in July 1940 when the United States for security reasons

imposed more rigid supervision over travel from all countries. At that time and until the adoption of the border-crossing card system it was necessary for all visitors from Canada to have passports and obtain visitors visas. The regulations were amended in the autumn of 1940 to permit Canadian citizens and British subjects domiciled in Canada to travel to the United States with border-crossing cards and their passports. A further relaxation was later adopted permitting the issuance of border-crossing cards by United States consular offices to Canadian citizens without passports. No further restrictions were imposed by the United States Government for travel to or from the United States of Canadian citizens.

For its part, the Canadian Government in 1940 imposed certain restrictions on the use of United States funds for travel in order to increase the amount of foreign exchange available for essential war purposes in the United States. The action taken was, of course, necessary as a wartime measure, and the restriction was carried into force by requiring all residents of Canada to obtain permission from the Foreign Exchange Control Board (on Form H) to depart from Canada and/or to export such funds as the Board allowed. Appropriate amounts of United States currency were supplied for necessary business, health, and educational travel, but travel involving the use of United States funds for pleasure purposes was stopped. In May 1944 the Canadian Government announced a relaxation of these restrictions, and Canadian residents are now able to obtain up to \$150 a year in United States funds for pleasure travel in the United States. Special exchange provisions have also been made to enable residents of border communities to make ordinary social visits to adjoining communities in the United States.

For the protection of its manpower reserve the Canadian Government also imposed restrictions upon the departure from Canada of men of military age and those intending to depart from Canada for the purpose of accepting employment. The Labor Exit Permit was also adopted as a measure of preventing the departure of persons

subject to military call. Labor Exit Permits were and are issued by the Employment Service, Department of Labor, in conjunction with the Mobilization Service and National Selective Service of that Department. Canadian immigration and customs officials are empowered to prevent the departure from Canada of any person subject to draft unless he is in possession of a Labor Exit Permit or a certificate of exemption.

If the emergency which caused the Canadian and United States Governments to impose the travel restriction becomes less acute it is expected that it may be possible to make further modification in the restrictions.

Mexican-United States Agricultural Commission

[Released to the press July 4]

The Secretary of State on July 4 announced the establishment of a Mexican-United States Agricultural Commission the purpose of which is to take all appropriate steps to assure active and continuous cooperation between the United States and Mexico in the field of agriculture. The following officers have been designated to serve on the United States Section of the Commission: Mr. L. A. Wheeler, Director of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Department of Agriculture, to act as chairman; Dr. E. C. Auchter, Administrator of the Agricultural Research Administration, Department of Agriculture; Mr. Lester De Witt Mallory, Agricultural Attaché of the American Embassy at Mexico City; and Mr. Carl N. Gibboney, Chief of the Production and Procurement Division, Office of Food Programs, Foreign Economic Administration.

The Mexican Government has designated the following officers to serve on the Mexican Section of the Commission: Señor Ing. Alfonso Gonzalez Gallardo, Under Secretary of Agriculture, to act as chairman; Señor Ing. Dario M. Arrieta M., Director General of Agriculture; Dr. Guillermo Quesado Bravo, Director General of Cattle Production; and Señor Ing. Gonzalo Gonzalez H., Director General of Rural Economy.

The Commission is being established in accordance with an agreement between the United

States and Mexico effected by an exchange of notes. The first meeting of the commissioners was scheduled to take place in Mexico City on July 4.

Visit of Guatemalan Pediatrician

[Released to the press July 5]

Dr. Ernesto Cofiño of Guatemala is now in the United States at the invitation of the Department of State to study official and private programs of child welfare in this country. Dr. Cofiño is a practicing pediatrician in Guatemala City and is active in child-welfare work there.

Dr. Cofiño plans to spend several months in Washington, D. C., studying the work of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor and will then visit several outstanding clinics, children's hospitals, (and sanatoria in other parts of the United States, including those at Duke University, University of Minnesota, Mayo Clinic, and Johns Hopkins.

In Guatemala Dr. Cofiño is professor of pediatrics on the Faculty of Medicine and chief of the service for children in the general hospital of Guatemala. He is also one of the principal organizers and the medical director of the "Colonia Infantil", a private charity hospital and rest camp for tubercular children. Located in the pine woods of San Juan Sacatepequez, the camp has beds for 25 children in the primary stages of infection. The rest camp, the first of its kind to be established in Guatemala, is supported by voluntary contributions of private citizens.

Visit of Mexican Hematologist

[Released to the press July 4]

Dr. Marcelo Martínez Repetto, Mexican hematologist of Mérida, capital of the State of Yucatán, has arrived in Washington at the invitation of the Department of State for three months' professional study and observation. Dr. Martínez Repetto has during the past five years carried on serious work in both clinical and laboratory hematology, four as intern and one as general practitioner.

Dr. Martínez Repetto says that anemia is a principal problem in Yucatán and that it is caused by the prevalence of pellagra, arising from a diet based on corn products and lacking in vitamins, and by the high incidence of diseases resulting from intestinal parasites. Because of this fact he plans, while in the United States, to pursue his investigations at a hospital in the South where he will have opportunities to observe how the physicians in this country deal with these problems.

Visit of Director of Uruguayan Hospital

[Released to the press July 3]

Dr. Amadeo Grosso Rossi, director of the Durazno Hospital in Durazno, Uruguay, has arrived in Washington as guest of the Department of State. He expects to remain in the United States for two months, visiting hospitals and clinics in Boston, Philadelphia, and New York, and observing surgery practice, particularly the technique of the operating room, and teaching methods.

Dr. Grosso Rossi is public-health supervisor for the Durazno Department, which has 45 hospitals. He says that his work is handicapped at present by a wartime shortage of supplies and also by a scarcity of nurses. In order to supply this latter deficiency the Durazno Hospital, in February 1944, inaugurated a school for nurses.

THE DEPARTMENT

Appointment of Officers

By Departmental Designation 24, issued June 23, 1944, effective June 23, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. R. Horton Henry as Assistant to the Under Secretary.

By Departmental Designation 25, issued June 23, 1944, effective June 23, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. Earl C. Hackworth, Division of Financial and Monetary Affairs, as Principal Liaison Officer for the Department of State with the Office of Alien Property Custodian.

By Departmental Designation 26, issued June 24, 1944, effective June 24, 1944, the Secretary of

State made the following designations: Mr. Honoré Marcel Catudal and Mr. Woodbury Willoughby as Associate Chiefs of the Division of Commercial Policy; Mr. H. Gerald Smith to continue as Assistant Chief of the Division of Commercial Policy in charge of the American Republics Branch; Mr. Erwin P. Keeler as Economic Consultant to the American Republics Branch; Mr. Carl D. Corse as Assistant Chief of the Division of Commercial Policy in charge of the General Commercial Policy Branch; Mr. Vernon L. Phelps as Assistant Chief of the Division of Commercial Policy in charge of the Division's European Branch; Mr. James A. Ross, Jr., as Assistant Chief of the Division of Commercial Policy in charge of the British Commonwealth Branch; and Mr. Homer S. Fox to continue as Consultant on foreign-trade protection and promotion in the Division of Commercial Policy.

By Departmental Designation 27, issued June 24, 1944, effective June 24, 1944, the Secretary of State made the following designations: Mr. Harry M. Kurth, Chief, Division of Budget and Finance, as Budget Officer of the Department of State; and Mr. Clifford C. Hulse as Chief, Planning and Liaison Staff; Mrs. Ella A. Logsdon as Chief, Budget Branch, and Mr. Donald W. Corrick as Chief, Accounts Branch of the Division of Budget and Finance.

By Departmental Designation 28, issued June 27, 1944, effective June 27, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. Henry P. Leverich as Assistant Chief of the Division of Central European Affairs.

By Departmental Designation 29, issued June 30, 1944, effective June 30, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. Dean Acheson, Assistant Secretary of State, as Chairman of the Executive Committee on Economic Foreign Policy,¹ established by letter of April 5, 1944, from the President to the Secretary of State. Mr. Harry C. Hawkins, Director of the Office of Economic Affairs, was designated as Vice Chairman.

Mr. Robert M. Carr, in the Office of Economic Affairs, was designated Executive Secretary of the Executive Committee on Economic Foreign Policy.

¹ BULLETIN of June 3, 1944, p. 511.

TREATY INFORMATION

Military-Service Agreement, Brazil and Great Britain

The American Embassy at Rio de Janeiro informed the Department by a despatch of May 31, 1944 that an agreement has been concluded between the Governments of Brazil and Great Britain authorizing military and other war services in the respective forces of each country by citizens of the other. The agreement was effected by an exchange of notes signed at Rio de Janeiro on May 27, 1944.

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences

On July 4, 1944 the instrument of ratification by the United States of America of the Convention on the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, which was opened for signature at the Pan American Union on January 15, 1944, was deposited with the Pan American Union.

PUBLICATIONS

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

Lease of Defense Sites: Agreement and Exchanges of Notes Between the United States of America and Panama—Agreement signed at Panamá May 18, 1942; effective May 11, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 359. Publication 2106. 17 pp. 10¢.

Wheat: Memorandum of Agreement and Related Papers Between the United States of America, Argentina, Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom—Memorandum of agreement initialed at Washington April 22, 1942; effective June 27, 1942. Executive Agreement Series 384. Publication 2140. 25 pp. 10¢.

Establishment of the Inter-American Cooperative Food Production Service in Peru: Agreement Between the United States of America and Peru—Effected by exchange of notes signed at Lima May 19 and 20, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 385. Publication 2131. 9 pp. 5¢.

Post-War Disposition of Defense Installations and Facilities: Agreement Between the United States of

America and Canada—Effected by exchange of notes signed at Ottawa January 27, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 391. Publication 2136. 4 pp. 5¢.

The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938-1943: Prepared by Haldore Hanson. Publication 2137. 71 pp. 15¢.

The Statesman: A Handbook for the Employees of the Department of State. By Richardson Dougall and Madge S. Lazo, Personnel Relations Section, Division of Departmental Personnel. Publication 2141. iv, 96 pp. Free.

The Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals: Cumulative Supplement No. 4, June 30, 1944, to Revision VII of March 23, 1944. Publication 2146. 46 pp. Free.

OTHER GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

The articles listed below will be found in the July 1 and 8 issues of the Department of Commerce publication entitled *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, copies of which may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, for 10 cents each:

"Haiti in 1943", prepared in the American Republics Unit on basis of reports by Robert S. Folsom, vice consul, and William A. Krauss, junior economic analyst, attached to the United States Embassy, Port-au-Prince (July 1, 1944 issue).

"Electronics in Venezuela", based on a report prepared by Carl Breuer, American Embassy, Caracas, Venezuela (July 8, 1944 issue).

"Honduras in 1943", prepared in American Republics Unit, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, on basis of report from Albert K. Ludy, Jr., junior economic analyst, American Embassy, Tegucigalpa, Honduras (July 8, 1944 issue).

LEGISLATION

An Act Making appropriations for the Executive Office and sundry independent executive bureaus, boards, commissions, and offices, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1945, and for other purposes. Approved June 27, 1944. [H.R. 4070.] Public Law 358, 78th Cong. 30 pp.

An Act Making appropriations for the Departments of State, Justice, and Commerce, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1945, and for other purposes. Approved June 28, 1944. [H.R. 4204.] Public Law 365, 78th Cong. 33 pp.

An Act Making appropriations to supply deficiencies in certain appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, and for prior fiscal years, to provide supplemental appropriations for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1944, and June 30, 1945, and for other purposes.

Approved June 28, 1944. [H.R. 5040.] Public Law 375, 78th Cong. [Department of State p. 16.] 29 pp.

Joint Resolution Declaring the policy of the Congress with respect to the independence of the Philippine Islands, and for other purposes. Approved June 29, 1944. [S.J. Res. 93.] Public Law 380, 78th Cong. 2 pp.

Joint Resolution To amend section 13 of Philippine Independence Act, as amended, establishing the Filipino Rehabilitation Commission, defining its powers and duties, and for other purposes. Approved June 29, 1944. [S.J. Res. 94.] Public Law 381, 78th Cong. 2 pp.

An Act Making appropriations for defense aid (lend-lease), for the participation by the United States in the work of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and for the Foreign Economic Administration, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1945, and for other purposes. Approved June 30, 1944. [H.R. 4937.] Public Law 382, 78th Cong. 5 pp.

Joint Resolution Requesting the President to urge upon the governments of those countries where the cultivation of the poppy plant exists, the necessity of immediately limiting the production of opium to the amount required for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes. Approved July 1, 1944. [H. J. Res. 241] Public Law 400, 78th Cong. 2 pp.

An Act To provide for loss of United States nationality under certain circumstances. Approved July 1, 1944. [H. R. 4103.] Public Law 405, 78th Cong. 1 p.

Relating to the Invitation to the Congress of the United States To Send a Delegation To Visit the British Parliament. H. Rept. 1741, 78th Cong., on S. Con. Res. 43. 1 p. [Favorable report.]

Protesting the Extermination by the Nazis of Minorities in Hungary and Other Nazi-Controlled Territories. H. Rept. 1742, 78th Cong., on H. Res. 610. 2 pp. [Favorable report.]